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경영학석사 학위논문

Is My Body Okay? The Impact of Body-Esteem on Patronage Intentions

내 몸 괜찮아? 신체 존중감이
후원의도에 미치는 영향

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Abstract

Is My Body Okay? The Impact of Body-Esteem on Patronage Intentions

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In recent years, notwithstanding the significant decrease of ideal body size, the number of individuals suffering from eating disorder, weight anxiety and social distress has been growing worldwide. As a result, there have been an increasing numbers of attempts to investigate one's body-esteem and its impact on one's behavioral intentions. Specifically, this research studies the impact of body-esteem on patronage intentions in a certain service experience (when shopping at a new store), bringing the scope of the subject into marketing field. Risk taking tendency is proposed as a mediator and perceived similarity among service providers' look as a moderator. The result showed that body-esteem relates positively to patronage intentions, and that risk taking tendency partially mediates the relationship. However, contrary to the hypothesized moderating effect of perceived similarity among service providers, no significant interaction effect was observed.

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Keywords: Body-Esteem, Body Images, Patronage Intention, Risk Taking Tendency, Perceived Similarity, Aesthetic Labor

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1. Introduction

1.1 Research Background and Purpose

According to a recent report by National Institute of Mental Health (2015), one in every five women struggle with an eating disorder or disordered eating. There is another statistic result that shows over one third of non-overweight girls report to be on dieting (Wertheim, Paxton, and Blaney 2009). Additionally, up to seventy million individuals worldwide are reported to be affected by eating disorders (The Renfrew Center Foundation for Eating Disorders 2002). Given that eating disorders mainly originates from individual's dissatisfactory body perception and obsessive weight concerns that are often induced by social pressures to attain an ideal body (Stice and Shaw 1994), these statistic figures highlights the growing importance of investigating one's body perception, especially about what affects them and what it affects.

Supporting such notion, there have been increasing numbers of studies over many different academic fields regarding body-esteem, body perception, body dissatisfaction Compatibly, the relationship between body perception and individual's eating behaviors, health concerns, and the relationship between self-esteem and body-esteem based on body perceptions have also

been studied in various literatures (Tiggemann and McGill 2004; Stice and Shaw 2002; Yamamia, Cash, Melnyk, Posavac and Posavac 2005). However, since traditional literatures regarding such factors have rather been limited to exploratory or descriptive researches, it appears necessary to investigate how individual's body perception can induce one's behavioral change, as to consumption behaviors, intentions or attitude.

Moreover, various literatures also suggest that media plays a significant part in influencing one's body perception, body dissatisfaction, eating behaviors and internalization of what is desired and considered ideal (Ahern, Bennett, and Hetherington 2008; Botta 1999; Hawkins, Richards, Granley, and Stein 2004). For example, it was found that young females are strongly inclined to employ portrayed images of models in the media when defining what their own bodies should look like (Botta 1999). Accordingly, much has been studied about the possibility of mere exposure to body images in the media that can affect one's body perception (Ambrosi-Randic 2000, Muth and Cash 1997; Tatangelo and Ricciardelli 2013).

Along with various literatures that have investigated into one's body perception on an individual psychologic and emotional level, there has been also a further attempt to investigate the link between body-esteem in

consumer decision making processes (Dittmar and Howard 2004; Gillian 2000; Martin, Veer, and Pervan 2007; Maxim and Loannis 2011; Tiggemann 2003). Often idealization of a certain body figure in marketing world is fairly accepted as a common marketing strategy and supported by empirical evidences that indicate products are sold better with skinny models (Gillian 2000). However, other research findings suggest rather confound result, on contrary. Even though there are certain tendency for some to generally perceive fashion models to be more elegant and interesting, and to associate being thin with being happy and desirable (Martin et al. 2007; Tiggemann 2003), on the other hand, it has also been demonstrated that such ideals in the media or advertisements may harm product evaluation, brand attitude or purchase intention by distressing an individual's body-esteem (Dittmar and Howard 2004; Maxim and Loannis 2001). These findings are specifically noteworthy in that they provide theoretical evidences that such exposure does affect not only one's body-esteem but also further behavioral consequences.

In addition to this, with the ever expanding market worldwide and with technologies developing at an extremely rapid pace, businesses engage in market segmentation, customer targeting and brand positioning activities more vigorously than ever. Therefore, the marketing field should

comprehend the impact of body-esteem on consumer behavior specifically looking into occasions where consumers are shopping at a new, unfamiliar and unknown setting. There lies the very purpose of this study: to investigate how bodily images in advertising can affect one's body esteem and how that leads to influences on further intentions of consumption behavior in a specific shopping experience, as to when shopping at a new store.

This research limits the scope to an offline purchasing context where the physical contact with service employees can play a moderating role, based on social comparison theory that suggests that perceived similarity among service providers in a shopping experience results in positive feelings about the experience itself, and further relates to consequential behaviors.

2. Main Concepts and Hypotheses Development

2.1 Idealization and Internalization of Thin Body Image

It almost comes as a given fact that in today's world being thin, slim and fit for both men and women is considered ideal. The emphasis on fitness has increased over recent decades and body images employed in the media and advertisements have kept on becoming thinner (Guillen and Barr 1994).

The idealized body image is promoted by various media involving television, advertisements, magazine, film, and so on and then delivered to public, firmly constructing and promoting the concept of what is an ideal body (Ahern et al. 2008; Botta 1999; Hawkins et al. 2004). Besides, even more recent reports suggest that now body image ideals are converging to the 'western thin' ideal, specifically (Mousa, Mashal, Al-Domi and Jibril 2010).

Such ideals seem almost omnipresent worldwide and seem to grow. They continue on becoming more socially pervasive globally, despite a series of findings that identifies adverse consequences including increased body dissatisfaction and psychological distress such as anger, anxiety and depression (Cattarin, Thompson, Thomas and Williams 2000; Jones 2001; Stice and Shaw 2002). Ironically, according to a recent report by World

Health Organization (2016), the size of the thin ideal is decreasing while the rate of obese population is simultaneously increasing. By this, it can be inferred that attaining what is considered ideal is becoming only more difficult for individuals, accelerating internalization of such thin ideal, which in turn leads to serious behavioral consequences (Evans 2003; Pinhas, Toner, Ali, Garfinkel, and Stuckless 1990; Tiggemann, Polivy, and Hargreaves 2009).

2.2 Body-Esteem, Self-Esteem and Patronage Intention

Traditionally it has been acknowledged that body image concerns heavily affect both women and men and their global self-worth by affecting their esteem over many different societies (Ambrosi-Randic 2000, Muth and Cash 1997; Tatangelo and Ricciardelli 2013).

According to early researches, the concept of self-esteem and body-esteem used to be employed often and sometimes interchangeably (Mendelson and Mendelson 1996). With the increasing demand for developing more acute and concrete psychological construct, on the other hand, separate scales have been proposed over years such as the Body Esteem Scale (Franzoi and Shields 1984) and the Body Esteem Scale for Adolescents and Adults

((Mendelson, Mendelson, and White 2001). Though, there is still a general consent that self-esteem and body-esteem both describe self-evaluations and feelings about the self (Mendelson and Mendelson 1996). The major difference between self-esteem and body-esteem is that self-esteem is defined as an individual's sense of value, approval, and appreciation of oneself (Rosenberg 1981) whereas body-esteem is defined as how individuals feel about their body image mostly (Mendelson, McLaren, Gauvin and Steiger 2002; Irving 1990). Previous research findings have shown that how individuals feel about their body is more important than the actual measurement of their weight (Mendelson and Mendelson 1996).

Therefore there have been many previous literatures studying the effect of such threat to one's body perception on their further behaviors, including decision making processes given that how one evaluates self plays a major role at determining their behaviors or attitude. Especially, there has been reported tendency for growing attempt for managerial force to devise and invent better strategies to elicit better evaluations and attitude from consumers, which can facilitate their purchase or patronage intention for the brand, to create sustainable profit-generating chain. In this sense, it is crucial to look into shopping occasions when customers visit a store for a first time, as many business are opening up at an increasing rate. Thus to investigate

more focused effect of body-esteem, this article specifically probes into how patronage intention is affected.

Patronage intention consist of individual's intention level to purchase an item in a given store, to engage in a shopping behavior in a given store and to later return to the store (Baker and Churchill 1977). When a consumer is visiting a new store, either as a first visit to an existing store or as a first visit to a newly opening up store, he or she is expected to bear certain risk of unknown shopping experience. In that case, consumers are known to make evaluations and judgments based on the physical evidences, including service providers, and visual cues of the setting. As suggested previously, a potential impact of image priming one's body-esteem is expected to hold, which is also expected to take part in determining one's patronage intention in a shopping experience.

Consequently, it has been well accepted that there is a high link between one's self-esteem, self-confidence and body-esteem to each other. Thus it is posited that those with higher body-esteem would show higher patronage intention overall. Therefore the main effect of body-esteem to patronage intention can be expected, as in

H1: When shopping at a new store, one's body-esteem relates positively to his/her patronage intention.

2.3 Confidence and Risk Taking Tendency

Previous literatures imply that body-esteem indicates how one individual feels about their body (Mendelson and Mendelson 1996; Irving 1990). It has been also known that body-esteem has been thought to have a significant relationship with and self-esteem, sometimes thought to be included as a part of self-esteem (Mendelson and Mendelson 1996) or sometimes only to have a relation with each other (Mendelson, McLaren, Gauvin and Steiger 2002; Irving 1990).

Nevertheless, this research defines body-esteem as a separate construct, independent from one's self-esteem and rather focuses on the relationship between body-esteem and confidence to clarify a rather localized and direct impact of body image exposure on one's consequential behaviors. Such attempt bases on a theoretical support from a previous study which has proven that one's level of self-esteem and self-view confidence can work independently, though each of them has a significant influence on another variable (Gao, Wheeler, and Shiv 2009).

With regard to this, it is important to note that self-esteem is a concept that is related to respect while self-view confidence is more about belief. According to the dictionary definition, it is indicated that to esteem is to prize, to set a high mental valuation. Taking this into account, esteem, when it comes to person, then extends to more approval, pleasantness and affection (Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman 2013). Meanwhile, confidence is also an independent construct, which implies one individual's subjective certainty, namely how much one is feeling sure, when making a judgment (Laroche, Kim and Zhou 1996).

Furthermore, according to previous literatures, confidence is an independent construct, which is the buyer's subjective certainty - his/her state of feeling sure - in making a judgment on the quality of a particular brand (Laroche, Kim and Zhou 1996). Consistently, an inference can be made that when one posits the subject of his/her confidence to be himself/herself, the concept expands to self-confidence. Thus, it can be said that self-confidence is the degree of certainty that one's evaluative judgment of the self is correct.

In general, previous findings suggest that confidence is positively related to individual willingness to take risks and participate in competitive interactions (Pirinsky 2013). Confidence could exhibit both positive and

negative influence on one individual's behavior. There are multiple literatures that suggest that confidence can foster morale, improve performance, and promote mental health (Kanter 2004; Peterson 2006).

On contrary, confidence can also endorse a negative impact on one's behavior and performance. An evidence is provided with previous studies, which recognizes that people are inclined to overestimate their skills and thus be overconfident (Buehler, Griffin, and Ross 1994; Presson and Benassi 1996). Overconfident individuals are reported to be more prone to mistakes, possibly incurring losses to themselves and others. However, many articles suggest that those with high confidence tend to engage in risk taking behavior more than those with less confidence.

The risk-taking behavior of those with high confidence is often a product of biased self-attribution. Biased self-attribution refers to the tendency of people to attribute good outcomes to themselves, but bad outcomes to some external forces, such as bad luck, others, or conditional cues (Hastorf, Schneider, and Polefka 1970; Krueger and Dickson 1994). Such tendency also describes that those with higher confidence show stronger optimism when engaging in a certain risk taking behavior. Therefore, hereby the second hypothesis is suggested that

H2: Risk taking tendency will partially mediate the causal relationship between one's body-esteem and patronage intention especially when shopping at a new store.

2.4 Aesthetic Labor and Social Comparison Theory

Those in managerial positions especially in service industry acknowledge the importance of service employees as a crucial part of creating and fostering a service experience, which could influence consumers' feelings, attitudes and behaviors (Berry2000; Bitner 1990; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Keillor, Hult, and Kandemir 2004). Often, the appearance of service providers is used as a tool that retailers employ to build a certain brand image and identity. It is now considered natural to observe service providers in many service industries sharing a common look. Such practices are an example of practicing aesthetic labor.

Aesthetic labor refers to controlling service providers' physical look based on managerial strategies (Pounders, Babin, and Close 2015). Aesthetic labor practices are common in service industries including fashion, beauty, food, and airline. By implementing aesthetic labor practices, more solid brand image is expected to be provided and consumers are expected to better

perceive the significance of provided service. Consistent with the expectation, many findings suggest evidences that these aesthetic labor practices help creating and maintaining a distinctive service experience (Pounders et al. 2015).

However, there also have been controversies over the impact of such managerial attempt to promote a similar look among service workers on consumers. Social Comparison Theory (Bonifield and Cole 2008; Festinger 1954) suggests that a similar image among service providers could discourage customers in a shopping experience by narrowing the number of consumers who can relate to the brand, resulting in cognitive dissonance (Pounders et al. 2015). In other words, a retailer may engage in aesthetic labor practices, employing a similar-looking set of employees, hoping to reinforce its brand image, but it could eventually discourage customers, by creating cognitive dissonance. Service providers' look refers to a service provider's overall physical appearance based on visible attributes including hairstyle, makeup, body size, shape, and clothing styles (Pounders et al. 2015). In this sense, Social Comparison Theory provides a basic theoretical implication regarding the consumer's psychological mechanism engaging in a service experience with aesthetic labor practices, which implies how customers are to determine their value perceptions and patronage intentions

(Pounders et al. 2015).

According to traditional findings, people have an innate need and tendency to compare their personal attributes to others in order to understand the relationship between self and their surroundings (Festinger 1954; Pounders et al. 2015). Social comparisons refer to comparisons between the self and others that could shape one individual's behavior, judgment and experiences (Corcoran, Crusius, and Mussweiler 2011). Social comparisons occur spontaneously as a response to social and environmental cues (Bonifield and Cole 2008; Smeesters and Mandel 2006).

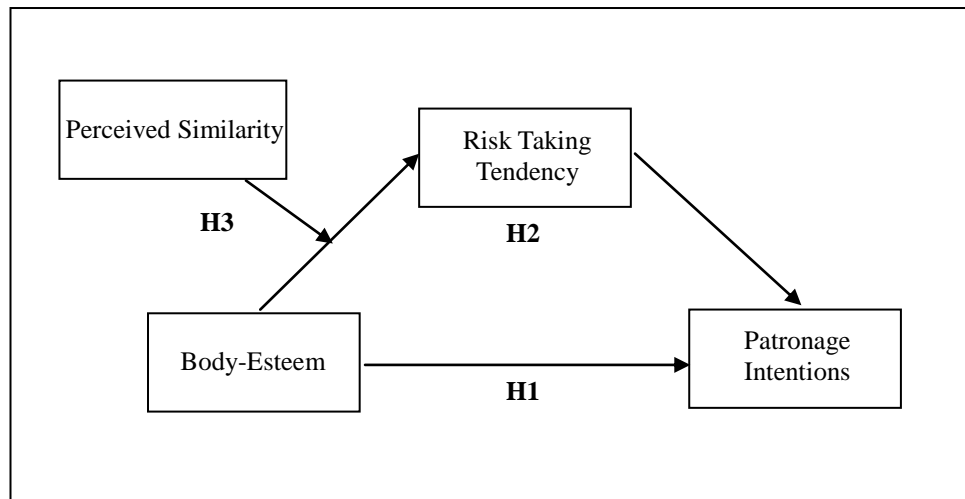
There are two distinct effects which comparisons result in: assimilation or contrast effects. When the consumer perceives the self to be similar to the comparison standard, assimilation effects take place, which typically evokes positive feelings. Meanwhile, contrast effects take place when the consumer judges the self as dissimilar from the comparison standard, which in many cases results in dissonance and unpleasantness (Alexandrov, Lily, and Babakus 2013; Mussweiler 2003). Accordingly, it can be inferred that the possibility of customers to experience contrast effects may grow considerably when aesthetic labor practices, promoting creating a similar look among service providers are employed.

In other words, that physical evidences, including the appearance of service employees would affect consumers during their decision making process. Specifically, when the service providers exhibit substantially similar physical appearances between each other, consumers, who almost instantly compare themselves to the service providers upon noticing, will experience contrast effects, because of such narrowly presented figurative image. This can lead on to a possible factor that could moderate the effect of body-esteem on one's risk taking tendency. If consumers have low level of body-esteem, they are less likely to take risks. Such effect will be amplified, which implies that consumers with low body-esteem will show even less risk taking tendency when they experience dissonance and negative affect by comparing them to such limited physical attributes. Consequently, third hypothesis can be proposed:

H3: When a level of perceived similarity among service providers is high (vs. low), a low level of one's body-esteem will cause even lower risk taking tendency.

3. Conceptual Framework

3.1 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses



< Figure 1. Conceptual Framework >

H1: When shopping at a new store, one's body-esteem relates positively to his/her patronage intention.

H2: Risk taking tendency will partially mediate the causal relationship between one's body-esteem and patronage intention.

H3: When a level of perceived similarity among service providers is high (vs. low), a low level of one's body-esteem will cause even lower risk taking tendency.

4. Methods and Results

The main experiment was designed to test three of the hypotheses proposed in this research. First of all, advertisements by each Victoria's Secret and Dove that depicted a set of women in lingerie were selected as idealized and non-idealized body images, respectively. Then a virtual scenario of a shopping experience was presented with an additional image of service providers. All images included multiracial figures to eliminate a racial bias.

4.1 Pretest

The purpose of pretest was twofold: (1) to confirm whether the selected sets of body images are perceived to be either idealized or non-idealized and (2) to select images of service providers sharing a certain level of perceived similarity among themselves, either high or low. Consequently, two pretests were conducted for each purpose.

The First Pretest The first pretest was conducted in order to confirm two sets of body images from advertisement of Victoria's Secret and Dove to be employed in the main experiment. The internal content of the advertisement images were compatible to each other in that it contained images of women revealing their body figures. The only difference was the revealed body

images were ‘ideal’ or not.

Firstly, six images were selected from both Victoria’s Secret and Dove advertisement, three from each. Then, after presented with each set of images, participants responded to a set of questions: “1.The physical figures here all look ideal,” “2.The physical figures here are idealized,” “3.The physical figures here depict idealization of bodily image” and “4.Such images threat my body-esteem” (1= completely disagree; 7=completely agree). Respondents were 52 graduate and undergraduate students from Seoul National University, who were randomly recruited in campus. Images were suggested in a printed form. Respondents ranged from 20 to 30 in their age.

As a result, all scale exhibited excellent reliability (Cronbach’s alpha > .91). The result showed that the first image set of Victoria’s Secret advertisement was perceived to be more idealized than the second image set of Dove advertisement ($M_{Victoria's\ secret} = 6.2$ and $M_{Dove} = 2.7$). For the last question, the result showed that the first image set was considered to significantly threat one’s body-esteem while the second image set did the opposite ($M_{Victoria's\ secret} = 6.4$ and $M_{Dove} = 3.1$). The point difference in two groups was statistically significant ($p < .05$).

The Second Pretest In order to select images of service providers in a given shopping situation with either high or low perceived similarity among them, the second pretest was conducted. It utilized the conditions manipulated in previous study (Pounders et al. 2015). Taking the previous literature into consideration, it was expected that there were two factors on determining perceived similarity among service providers: one was whether they are with or without uniforms, and the other was how much service providers shared similar physical attributes such as hair color, height, body figure and styling. Accordingly, four different pictures of a group of service providers were collected under four conditions, by uniform (with vs. without) \times physical attributes (similar vs. diverse).

Forty respondents under each condition were initially presented with a picture of a group of service providers and then answered how similar much they found the service providers to be perceived, on 7-point Likert scale (1=not at all; 7=very much). To interpret the result, a Factorial ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of uniform and physical attributes and a possible interaction effect of those on the level of perceived similarity of each given picture. Following the result of the analysis, two pictures each indicating the highest and the lowest level of perceived similarity are to be selected as manipulation tools to be employed in the main experiment.

A two-way analysis of variance was conducted on the influence of two variables (uniform, physical attributes) on the level of perceived similarity. Uniform variable included two levels based on whether the service providers in the given picture were with or without uniforms (with vs. without) and physical attributes consisted of two levels (similar vs. diverse). All effects were statistically significant on the level of .05 significance. The main effect for uniform yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 36) = 46.748, p < .001$, indicating a significant difference between those with uniforms and those without ($M_{with} = 4.80, SD = 1.79$ vs. $M_{without} = 2.90, SD = 1.21$). The main effect for physical attributes that service providers share yielded an F ratio of $F(1, 36) = 74.590, p < .001$, indicating a significant difference between those sharing similar physical attributes and those sharing diverse ones ($M_{similarPA} = 5.05, SD = 1.66$ vs. $M_{diversePA} = 2.65, SD = .87$). The interaction effect was also significant ($F(1, 36) = 4.662, p = .038, < .05$).

By additional descriptive statistics, those with uniforms sharing similar physical attributes were confirmed to report the highest level of perceived similarity while those without uniforms sharing diverse physical attributes reported the lowest ($M_{with,similarPA} = 6.30, SD = 1.25, M_{without,similarPA} = 3.80, SD = .92, M_{with,diversePA} = 3.30, SD = .48$ and $M_{without,diversePA} = 2.00, SD = .67$).

Therefore, each of the two pictures was selected to be employed to manipulate perceived similarity condition in the main experiment.

4.2 Participants and Research Design

The goal of the main experiment was to verify previously suggested three hypotheses. The experiment employed a 2(body esteem: high vs. low) x 2 (perceived similarity: high vs. low) between-subject design. Subjects were randomly assigned across four conditions with four different scenarios about a virtual shopping experience. One hundred forty two respondents initially participated in the online survey. However, seven participants did not complete the questionnaire and submitted incomplete answers. Also, there were two respondents who did not report their demographic information, which diminished the credibility of the answers. These participants were eliminated from the result analysis. In conclusion, the data of 133 participants (Male = 52, Female = 81) were applied for testing three hypotheses in the main experiment.

4.3 Procedures

Participants were informed with an instruction that the purpose of the study is to obtain basic information of general consumers' attitude in a certain

shopping experience. Firstly, after the instruction, three advertisements depicting certain body image appeared on the survey page, one by one, on which respondents had to click to continue. This way, it was made sure for participants not to overlook or neglect given images. Then, one virtual shopping scenario was provided. The scenario described a shopping experience when the participant is visiting a new retailer and included a picture of service providers who the participant gets to encounter in the given situation. Subsequently, participants were asked to read the scenario carefully and complete following questionnaires based on the suggested shopping experience. The set of body images remained on the screen throughout all procedures, though it first appeared as fully paged images and then moved onto each side of the page.

Body-Esteem In order to manipulate participants' body-esteem, the pretested images appeared on the starting screen as in a form of online advertising. There were no descriptions or details added. In the high body-esteem condition, image set of Dove advertisement was presented whereas in the low body-esteem condition, image set of Victoria's Secret advertisement was presented. For manipulation check, each participants were asked to answer 20 items measuring body-esteem on 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Adapted from Body-

Esteem Scale for Adolescents and Adults (Mendelson, Mendelson, and White 2001), the items included twelve items on how positive or negative an individual feel about appearance (“BE-Appearance”), three items on how much an individual is satisfied with weight (“BE-Weight”) and five items on how positive or negative an individual evaluate one’s body and appearance attributed to others (“BE-Attribution”). BESAA indicates the higher an individuals’ overall score, the higher one’s body-esteem is. Some of the answered scores were later coded inversely to indicate higher point stands for higher body-esteem. All scales exhibited excellent reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha > .84$). Confirmatory factor analysis was employed, that produced a single factor score based the listed 20 items with loadings exceeding 0.75 for all items. Following such result, all 20 items were aggregated and the mean of them was utilized as the level of body-esteem.

Perceived Similarity Perceived similarity among service employees’ appearance was also manipulated with a picture provided with scenario. The manipulation was tested with previous pretest. In the high similarity condition, the scenario included a picture that contained a group of service providers with uniform, sharing similar physical attributes with each other. In the low similarity condition, the other picture was provided containing a group of service providers without uniform, sharing diverse physical

attributes with each other.

After reading given scenario about a shopping experience, each participant also responded to three-item manipulation check to indicate the level of perceived similarity of service provider look (Pounders et al. 2015): “1. The employees here all look very much alike,” “2. The employees here share the same ‘look’” and “3. The employees here share the same overall appearance” (1 = Not at all; 7 = Very much). All scales exhibited excellent reliability (Cronbach’s alpha >.91). Confirmatory factor analysis was employed, that produced a single factor score based the three items with loadings exceeding 0.86 for all items. As a result, all three items were aggregated and the mean of them was collected and used as the level of perceived similarity among service providers for further analysis.

Risk Taking Tendency Risk taking tendency was measured with the Risk Propensity Scale, (Meertens and Lion 2008) which measures individual’s general tendency to take risks. The RPS consists of seven items. These items include “1. Safety first,” (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree) “2. I do not take risks with my health,” (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree) “3. I prefer to avoid risks,” (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree) “4. I take risks regularly,” (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree) “5. I really dislike not

knowing what is going to happen,” (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree) “6. I usually view risks as a challenge” (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree) and “7. I see myself as a ...” (1 = risk avoider; 7 = risk taker). All scales exhibited excellent reliability (Cronbach’s alpha > .89). Compatible to previous procedures, confirmatory factor analysis was employed as well, in order to produce a single factor score. A single factor score was produced based on the seven items with loadings exceeding 0.85 for all items. Accordingly, all seven items were aggregated and the mean of them was collected and used as the score of individual’s risk taking tendency for further analysis.

Patronage Intention Adapted from Pounder et al. (2015) originally based on Baker and Churchill (1977), individual’s patronage intentions for the store was measured through three items on 7-point Likert scale. These items involve “1. I would purchase an item in this store,” “2. I would shop in this store” and “3. I would return to this store in the future” (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). All scales exhibited excellent reliability (Cronbach’s alpha > .90). Confirmatory factor analysis was employed, that produced a single factor score based on the three items with loadings exceeding 0.82 for all items. Accordingly, the three items were aggregated and the mean of them was utilized as the score of patronage intention under

given shopping setting.

Other Measurements To rule out possible alternative account, mood was scaled as well with 20-item PANAS mood was also measured. As 20-item PANAS mood scale (Watson, Clark, and Tellegen 1988) is provided with 20 words describing different feelings and emotions (half positive, the other half negative), participants are asked to indicate their mood at the moment of participation on five scales (1=“very slightly or not at all”, 2=“a little”, 3=“moderately”, 4=“quite a bit” and 5=“extremely”).

Participants also answered some additional items. First of all, respondents reported answers of demographic information such as age, gender and nationality. In addition, an open-ended question was provided for participants to freely give additional comments about the survey. As participants finished all the procedures above, the main experiment was completed.

4.4 Results

Manipulation Check The result demonstrated that body-esteem and perceived similarity among service providers were successfully manipulated. As expected, the participants under low BE condition, who were exposed to

idealized body images, indicated much lower body-esteem while those under high BE condition, who were exposed to non-idealized body images, showed higher body-esteem ($M_{High}=4.90$, $SD=1.31$ vs. $M_{Low}=3.80$, $SD=1.60$; $t(125)=4.32$, $p < .001$). In addition, the participants under high similarity condition perceived service providers to be more similar to each other than those under low similarity condition did ($M_{High\ Similarity}=5.49$, $SD=1.49$ vs. $M_{Low\ Similarity}=2.20$, $SD=1.04$; $t(117)=14.76$, $p < .001$).

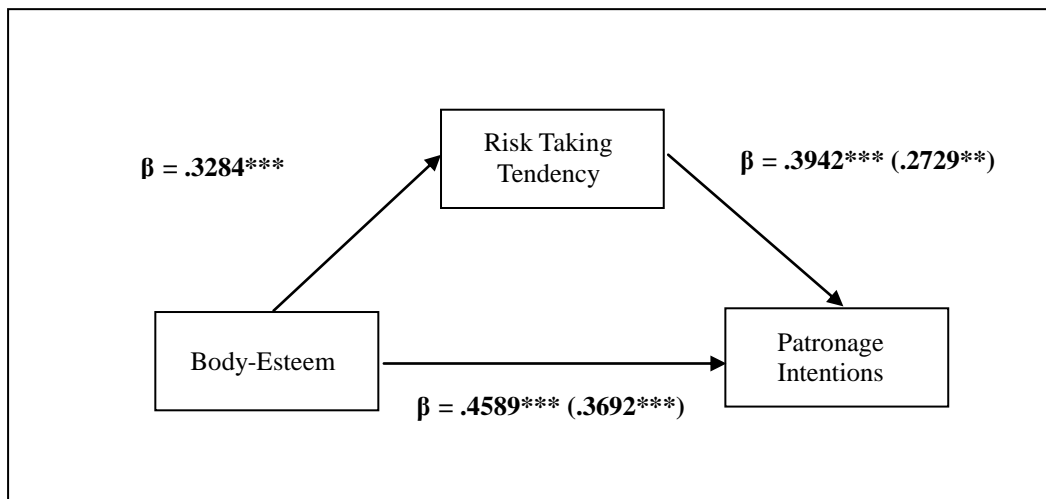
Main Effect Analysis Firstly, this research hypothesized positive relationship of one's body-esteem and patronage intention when shopping in a new store. In other words, it was expected that if one indicates high body-esteem, high level of patronage intention will follow while those with low body-esteem shows low level of patronage intention. As expected, a significant main effect of body-esteem on patronage intention was demonstrated ($F(1,131) = 7.052$, $p = .000$). Participants under high BE condition indicated higher patronage intention than those under low BE condition ($M_{High}=4.99$, $SD=1.60$ vs. $M_{Low}=2.78$, $SD=1.38$). This result supports previously proposed hypothesis 1.

Mediating Effect Analysis The second hypothesis was regarding the mediating effect of risk taking tendency on the main effect. It was proposed

that the positive relationship between body-esteem and patronage intention was partially mediated by one's level of risk taking tendency. Specifically, when shopping in a new store, high (vs. low) body-esteem would lead to high (vs. low) risk taking tendency and then subsequently to high (vs. low) patronage intention, as well.

In order to test given hypothesis, risk taking tendency was tested as a mediator, according to the procedures suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The main effect, firstly, was tested by regressing patronage intention on body-esteem. It successfully showed that one's body-esteem positively relates to the level of patronage intention ($\beta = .4589, p < .001$). For the next step, risk taking tendency was regressed on body-esteem. A positive relationship was observed with statistical significance ($\beta = .3284, p < .001$). Then, by regressing patronage intention on risk taking tendency, risk taking tendency was found to also positively relate to patronage intention ($\beta = .3942, p < .001$). Lastly, regression on both body-esteem and risk taking tendency was conducted in terms of patronage intention. A significant effect of body-esteem on patronage intention was confirmed ($\beta = .3692, p < .001$), as well as a significant effect of risk taking tendency ($\beta = .2729, p < .005$). Therefore, it was confirmed that the effect of body-esteem on patronage intention was partially mediated by risk taking tendency (see Figure 2).

For further support, in order to make the results even more evident, bootstrapping samples (Hayes 2012; 5000 Bootstrapped samples; PROCESS SPSS Macro; Model 4) were conducted. Body-esteem, risk taking tendency, and patronage intention was respectively assigned to each independent (X), mediating (M) and dependent variable (Y). The outcome significantly indicated that the effect of body-esteem on patronage intention was partially mediated by risk taking tendency [Route of main effect: $\beta = .4589$, $p < .001$, Route of mediating effect: $\beta = .3692$, $p < .001$]. Consistently, the mediating effect of risk taking tendency was confirmed to be significant, successfully supporting hypothesis 2.



<Figure 2. The Mediating Role of Risk Taking Tendency>

Moderated Mediation Effect Analysis The third hypothesis in this article tests the moderating role of perceived similarity among service providers. To be more specific, it was proposed that when a level of perceived similarity among service providers is high (vs. low), a low body esteem will lead to even lower risk taking tendency. To demonstrate such effect, the moderated mediation effect of perceived similarity among service providers was tested with bootstrapping samples (Hayes 2012; 5000 Bootstrapped samples; PROCESS SPSS Macro; Model 7). Each variable was set consistent with previously suggested constructs, body-esteem as independent variable (*X*), perceived similarity as moderating variable (*W*), risk taking tendency as mediating variable (*M*), and patronage intention as dependent variable (*Y*). The outcome indicated that the index of moderated mediation effect is .0117 and the confidence interval included zero (index = .0117, 95% CI [-.0102, 0.0474]). As a result, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

4.5 Discussion

Through two pretests and one main experiment, the positive relationship between one's level of body-esteem and patronage intention when shopping in a new store was significantly confirmed. To be specific, as being exposed to multiple set of idealized body images during given experiment, the

participants reported relatively low body-esteem whereas those presented with non-idealized body images reported rather high body-esteem. Then, this consequently led to a positive effect on their patronage intention under given specific shopping setting, which was when shopping in a new store. The participants with higher body-esteem showed higher level of patronage intention under given situation than those with comparatively low body-esteem revealed lower level of patronage intention. Furthermore, this main effect was also partially explained by one's risk taking tendency. In other words, one's body-esteem related positively to risk taking tendency, which in turn related positively to one's patronage intention as well. The mediating role of risk taking tendency on the effect of one's body-esteem on patronage intention was significantly confirmed by mediation analysis by Baron and Kenny (1986) and bootstrapping samples (Hayes 2012; 5000 Bootstrapped samples; PROCESS SPSS Macro; Model 4).

On the other hand, hypothesis 3 was not supported. It was initially expected that high level of perceived similarity among service providers would lead to a smaller impact of body-esteem on patronage risk taking tendency. On the contrary, perceived similarity had no direct effect on one's patronage intention and it did not interact with the level of body-esteem.

One potential explanation for such outcome is that participants may perceive certain level of similarity among service providers to be a prototype in a shopping experience. Based on their previous shopping experiences, it is likely that participants already posit service workers to share a certain level of congruity in appearances as a part of their job as 'service providers'. In that case, participants are inclined to deny or overlook the fact that service providers' appearance could affect their propensity to take risks. The other possible explanation is that there has been a controversy about the impact of fostering high similarity among service providers' physical appearances. Some of previous literatures, as suggested in previous section of this research, provide various theoretical evidences that indicate a negative impact of forcing high similarity among service providers. According to social comparison theory, due to contrast effect, consumers tend to experience negative affect when service providers share a highly similar look. However, opposing findings have also been suggested by other previous literatures. Those advocating a positive impact of service workers maintaining similar appearances focus on how similarity among service providers could build and solidify a clear and specific brand image, deliver a certain value to customers, and thus more efficiently promote a unique service experience (Pounders et al. 2015). Such contradictory findings may take account for the not significant effect of perceived similarity as a

moderator tested in this research. Therefore, future research shall take this into consideration and attempt to control for these factors in advance. Also, there were a few participants who reported additional opinions about this experiment. A number of the reported opinions indicated that the answers could have been different depending on the type of good they were shopping for. In this research, to acquire rather general and industry-independent effect, the shopping experience was only suggested to be happening in a new 'retailer'. Future research may look into this and investigate more into the moderating effect of perceived similarity depending on different types of products.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of the present research was (1) to examine the causal relationship between one's body-esteem and patronage intention when shopping in a new store, (2) to estimate and confirm the underlying mechanism of the relationship, and (3) to explore a moderator for the proposed effect, namely perceived similarity among service providers. The pretests and one main study demonstrated that when shopping in a new store, body-esteem relates positively to consumers' patronage intention for the

store, and that this main effect was partially explained by risk taking tendency. This finding provides various theoretical and managerial implications for both scholars and marketing practitioners in the field.

Theoretical Implications To begin with, this research investigates the effect of idealized body images on one's body-esteem and confirms how mere exposure to such images can influence one's body perceptions and how one feels about their body (Cattarin et al. 2000; Jones 2001; Stice and Shaw 2002). Consistent with previous findings of the impact of such exposure, this research especially specifies body-esteem, integrating the concepts of individual's body perception, anxiety, consciousness and contentment into one sound factor of 'body-esteem'. With the reliability check and additional confirmatory factor analysis, this research confirms the internal reliability of BESAA (Mendelson et al. 2001). As a result, this research provides another theoretical and empirical evidence for the application of body-esteem as a construct in further academic researches.

Moreover it identifies body-esteem's impact on patronage intention. This acknowledges the fact the body-esteem can be a significant determinant of a consumer's behavioral intention under a specific shopping experience. This outcome is noteworthy in that it expanded the domain of body-esteem to

rather universal shopping context, regardless of type goods. As mentioned earlier, since a type of good was not specified along the main experiment, this promotes even further generalization and application of the positive relationship of body-esteem and patronage intention on universal shopping level.

More importantly, traditional literatures have been focusing on the possible factors that affect one's body-esteem. A number of researches about body-esteem, thus, remain at either exploratory or descriptive level. Even though there have been various articles concerning what could affect one's body-esteem, attempts to identify body-esteem as a driving force of consumer behavior have been relatively sparse. This research contributes greatly to academic literatures as an evident example that could fill the void.

Lastly, individual's risk taking tendency was brought into a scope hereby and identified as a significant mediator on the positive relationship between one's body-esteem and patronage intention for a newly visiting store. This sheds a light on a possible future research that could investigate the relationship between body-esteem and consumption activity that individuals engage in with certain level of perceived risk. One suggestion is to study how one's level of body-esteem can affect purchasing intention or attitude

for experience goods. By definition, an experience good is a product or service where product characteristics, such as quality or price, are difficult to observe in advance, but can only be ascertained upon consumption (Nelson 1970). In that sense, consumers are expected to perceive a significant level of risk when they are to make consumption choices for these goods. Cosmetics, skin care products, daily necessities, and health foods are a good example of experience goods (Huang, Lurie, and Mitra 2009; Lian and Yen 2013). With the growing market for such goods at a rapid pace, future researches on body-esteem affecting purchase intentions on those will signify a crucial value. On top of this, online shopping, on the other hand, also reveals a close link to one's risk propensity. Future researches could also study the relationship between attitude toward online shopping or likelihood to engage in online shopping and one's body-esteem.

Managerial Implications This study also bears several implications for practitioners and those in managerial positions. First of all, by confirming the impact of images portraying thin ideal on one's body-esteem that further influences individual's patronage intention negatively, this research not only specifies the negative impact on individual level but also expands the impact onto business managerial perspective. Contradictory to the traditional beliefs that applying 'ideal' in advertising and marketing strategies could promote

sales by fostering a certain fantasy to consumers (Gillian 2000), this study provides an evidence of potential backfiring effect of employing ideal images as a marketing strategy. It is suggests that presenting idealized figures could have a negative impact on businesses especially when they are entering a new market, opening up a new branch, targeting a new customer group and promoting a new item, in other words, on occasions when comprehending consumers' risk propensity plays a crucial role.

Furthermore, as identifying risk of threatening individual's body-esteem in a shopping experience especially for those opening up businesses, this article also reveals a possible risk of practicing aesthetic labor. Even though the moderating effect of perceived similarity among service providers was not significant, how mere exposure to idealized body images significantly threatened one's body-esteem that further affected their intention was significantly demonstrated. This highlights the risk of employing aesthetic labor practices in that aesthetic labor itself can be portrayed as 'idealized figures'.

In sum, this research provides various implications for those in both academic and business field. By confirming the impact of idealized body images on the level of body-esteem that in turn affects one's patronage

intention, with a mediating role of one's risk taking tendency, it implies a number of valuable findings, bringing rather neglected domain into an academic scope and identifying critical risks that must be considered when building marketing strategies.

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7. Appendix

Body Esteem Scale for Adolescents and Adults (Mendelson, Mendelson, and White 2001)

Items	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
BE-Appearance														
I like what I look like in pictures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I am pretty happy about the way I look.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I like what I see when I look in the mirror.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
There are lots of things I'd change about my looks if I could.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I'm proud of my body.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I wish I looked better.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I think I have a good body.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I am looking as nice as I'd like to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I often wished I looked like someone else.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
My looks upset me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I am as nice looking as most people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I worry about the way I look.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
BE-Weight														
My weight makes me unhappy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I wish I was thinner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I really like what I weigh.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
BE-Attribution														
Kids my own age like my looks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
I often feel ashamed of how I look.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Other people make fun of the way I look.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Most people have a nicer body than I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
My parents like my looks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							

국문초록

내 몸 괜찮아? 신체 존중감이 후원의도에 미치는 영향

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최근에 들면서 전세계적으로 이상적 신체 사이즈는 크게 감소하는 반면 섭식장애와 체중과 관련한 사회적 불안으로 고통 받는 인구는 증가하는 추세가 나타남에 따라 신체 존중감과 그것이 개인의 행동의도에 가지는 영향에 대한 연구 또한 증가하고 있다. 그 중 본 연구는 특히 신체 존중감이 특정 서비스 경험에서 (새로운 점포에서의 쇼핑 상황) 후원의도에 미치는 영향에 대하여 알아본다. 매개변수로는 위험감수경향, 조절변수로는 서비스 제공자들의 외모간 감지된 유사성이 활용되었다. 연구 결과, 신체 존중감은 후원의도와 정의 상관관계를 갖고, 위험감수경향은 부분적으로 이를 매개함을 확인하였다. 그러나 조절변수인 감지된 유사성이 갖는 효과는 확인되지 않았다. 본 연구의 결과는 심미적 노동자들을 활용하는 여러 서비스 산업에 다양한 시사점을 제공한다.

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주요어: 신체 존중감, 신체이미지, 후원의도, 위험감수경향, 감지된 유사성, 심미적 노동자

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